Hif-1alpha induced expression of Il-1beta protects against mycobacterial

infection in zebrafish.

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Abstract

Drug resistant mycobacteria are a rising problem worldwide. There is an

urgent need to understand the immune response to TB to identify host targets that, if

targeted therapeutically, could be used to tackle these currently untreatable

infections. Here, we use an Il-1β fluorescent transgenic line to show that there is an

early innate immune pro-inflammatory response to well-established zebrafish models

of inflammation and *Mycobacterium marinum* (Mm) infection. We demonstrate that

host-derived hypoxia signalling, mediated by the Hif-1α transcription factor, can

prime macrophages with increased levels of Il-1β in the absence of infection,

upregulating neutrophil antimicrobial nitric oxide production, leading to greater

protection against infection. Our data link Hif-1α to proinflammatory macrophage Il-

1β transcription during early mycobacterial infection and highlight how host-derived

Hif-1α may be a promising drug target to stimulate the innate immune response to

better deal with infections.

Keywords: Hif-1α/Il-1β/mycobacterium/hypoxia/zebrafish

Introduction

Pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) is a major world health problem caused by the

bacillus *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*) (World Health Organization, 2016). It is a

current priority for infectious disease research due to increasing rates of multi- and

totally-drug resistant strains causing high levels of mortality, especially in the

immunocompromised (Koul *et al*, 2011). Mycobacteria are specialised at evading

killing mechanisms of the immune system to survive. Mycobacteria and immune cells

create a highly organised niche, called the granuloma, in which Mtb can proliferate or

enter a latent phase, protected from the immune system (Podinovskaia *et al*, 2013;

Ramakrishnan, 2012). In human Mtb infection, bacteria first encounter cells of the innate immune system in and around the lungs, either macrophages in the alveolar space or neutrophils in the surrounding capillary vasculature, before the involvement of adaptive immunity and granuloma formation (Lerner *et al*, 2015; Jasenosky *et al*, 2015). These initial phagocytosis events are followed by the attraction of other innate immune cells which signal to draining lymph nodes to activate the adaptive immune response, signs of which only become apparent 3 to 8 weeks after infection in humans (Jasenosky *et al*, 2015). Although granuloma formation is reasonably well characterised, the initial interactions of the bacteria with the host innate immune cells are less well defined *in vivo*.

Mtb, like many other bacterial and pathogenic microbes, triggers a pro-inflammatory immune response via the activation of TLRs (Toll-like receptors) (Mortaz *et al*, 2015). The activation of the innate immune cells via TLR signalling is a critical early host response to many invading pathogens for successful clearance of infection and, in the absence of TLR signalling, mycobacteria grow unchecked to cause systemic infection (van der Vaart *et al*, 2013). Although mycobacteria can hijack host leukocytes to create a niche for their growth, in zebrafish models many of the initial Mm inoculum are neutralised by macrophages and neutrophils before infection can take hold (Hosseini *et al*, 2016; Cambier *et al*, 2013). Early mycobacterial interaction with host leukocytes is critical for the pathogen, and manipulation of the macrophage by the bacteria is required for establishment of a permissive niche in which the bacteria can grow and build its host derived protective structure, the granuloma (Meijer, 2016; Guirado *et al*, 2013). Greater understanding of the diverse phenotype of macrophages immediately after infection may allow therapeutic tuning to provide maximal early control of mycobacteria during infection (McClean & Tobin, 2016;

Dorhoi & Kaufmann, 2015). Recent studies in optically translucent zebrafish infection

models have indicated that initial interactions between Mm and macrophages and

neutrophils are more complex than originally thought, with successive rounds of

bacterial internalisation and leukocyte cell death leading to granuloma formation

(Hosseini *et al*, 2016; Cambier *et al*, 2017; Elks *et al*, 2015). The immune molecular

mechanisms involved in these early processes are poorly understood.

We have previously demonstrated in a zebrafish/Mm model of TB that the initial

immune response to infection can be enhanced by stabilising host-derived Hif-1α

(hypoxia inducible factor-1 alpha), leading to reduced bacterial burden (Elks *et al*,

2013). Hif-1α is a major transcriptional regulator of the cellular response to hypoxia,

that has been implicated in the activation of macrophages and neutrophils during

infection and inflammatory processes (Cramer *et al*, 2003; Elks *et al*, 2011).

Stabilisation of Hif-1α in zebrafish upregulated pro-inflammatory neutrophil nitric

oxide (NO) production leading to lower mycobacterial burden (Elks *et al*, 2013,

2014a). The mechanisms by which pro-inflammatory cytokines associated with this

NO increase are regulated by Hif-1α signalling is not known.

IL-1β is a critical macrophage-derived activator of immune cells with wide-ranging

and complex effects on immune signalling and downstream pathways. IL-1β has

been shown to be upregulated in the onset and formation of Mm and Mtb

granulomas (Di Paolo *et al*, 2015; Bourigault *et al*, 2013; Novikov *et al*, 2011). We

hypothesised that IL-1β would be activated in specific immune cell populations early

in Mm infection, (within 1-day post-infection, pre-granuloma formation) and that Hif-

1α acts via altered expression of this important pro-inflammatory mediator to confer

protection against mycobacterial infection. Here, using the zebrafish Mm model and

fluorescent transgenic lines, we show that that *il-1β* is transcriptionally upregulated in

macrophages early during *in vivo* infection. Stabilisation of Hif-1α upregulates *il-1β*

transcription in macrophages in the absence of infection. *il-1β* signalling is required

for protective NO production by neutrophils and a subsequent decrease in infection.

Our data indicate that protective Hif-1α mediated NO is at least partially regulated by

the key pro-inflammatory mediator Il-1β, increasing our understanding of the

mechanism of action of the potential therapeutic target, Hif-1α, as a host-derived

factor in TB.

Results

***il-1β:GFP* is upregulated in macrophages during early and later stage Mm**

infection

Il-1β is a major macrophage-derived pro-inflammatory cytokine that is upregulated in

both inflammation and infection. The initial phase of Mm infection in zebrafish is

characterised by a short period of greatly increased pro-inflammatory signalling

(before 1 day post-infection, dpi) where the immune system reacts to Mm infection.

This is followed by a lag-phase of decreased activity which allows for granuloma

formation between 2-3dpi, before cytokine levels rise again in formed larval

granulomas at 4dpi (Benard *et al*, 2016; Hosseini *et al*, 2016). However, the levels of

pro-inflammatory cytokines have only been previously studied at a transcriptional

level in whole embryos or FACS sorted cells, rather than detecting levels *in situ*, over

time, in an intact organism (Benard *et al*, 2016).

We hypothesised that Il-1β is a major pro-inflammatory cytokine that would be

upregulated by both mycobacterial infection and Hif-1α stabilisation. We have

previously shown upregulation of *il-1β* message after induction of inflammation via

tailfin transection by qPCR and wholemount *in situ* hybridisation (WISH) in the

zebrafish (Ogryzko *et al*, 2014a). *il-1β* is one of the most readily detectable pro-

inflammatory cytokines during early granuloma stages of Mm infection and at 1 dpi

(Figure 1A) (Van Der Vaart *et al*, 2014). At 1dpi transcription is upregulated 1.7 fold

measured by qPCR, compared to PVP injection controls (Figure 1A). Macrophage

expression of *il-1β* is greatly under-represented measured in this way on the

wholebody level due to the small proportion of cells that contribute to the immune

lineage. Therefore, to investigate *il-1β* expression on a cellular level *in vivo*, we

developed a BAC (bacterial artificial chromosome) derived *il-1β* promoter driven GFP

line, *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)SH445*, to assess *il-1β* expression in real-time during

mycobacterial infection. We sought to examine *il-1β:GFP* expression in our well-

established inflammation assay before investigating its expression during

mycobacterial infection. Both wholemount *in situ* hybridisation (WISH) of *il-1β* and *il-*

1β:GFP do not exhibit any immune cell expression under basal conditions (Figure

S1A-B and Figure 1B). *il-1β:GFP* recapitulates *il-1β* WISH expression in response to

tail transection, with upregulation observed in cells in and around the caudal

haematopoietic region (CHT), consistent with immune cell expression, (Figure S1A

and B) (Ogryzko *et al*, 2014a), although, as expected, the synthesis of GFP occurs

over a longer timescale than that of *il-1β* mRNA detected by WISH. Neutrophils are

the first cells to respond to tailfin transection with increased *il-1β:GFP*, with

fluorescence first observed at 1hpw (hours post-wounding) and still present at 6hpw

(Figure S1C). Having demonstrated that the il-1β:GFP is responsive to inflammation

in similar cells over a similar timespan as the *in situ* hybridisation, we sought to

investigate its regulation during mycobacterial infection.

We used the *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* line to show that GFP is expressed in cells

proximal to Mm infection sites at pre-granuloma phases (1dpi) (Figure 1B) and in

larval granulomas (4dpi) (Figure 1C). Many of these cells contained Mm and had the

appearance of activated immune cells with a dynamic branched phenotype (Figure

1B and Movie S1). The earliest timepoint at which *il-1β:GFP* could be detected by

confocal microscopy was between 6 and 8 hours post infection, (Figure 2A),

consistent with rapid transcriptional activation of the *il-1β* promoter after infection and

similar to the timing of macrophage *il-1β:GFP* expression after tailfin transection

(Figure 2B). *il-1β:GFP* was predominantly upregulated in infected macrophages at

1dpi (Figure 2C) consistent with their containment of phagocytosed Mm (Figure 1B).

These data demonstrate that, during early stages of infection, *il-1β* is transcriptionally

activated in infected macrophages as part of an early pro-inflammatory response.

Stabilisation of Hif-1α upregulates *il-1β:GFP* at early stages of infection

We have previously shown that stabilisation of Hif-1α induces neutrophil pro-

inflammatory nitric oxide production (Elks *et al*, 2013, 2014a). We hypothesised that

this may be a part of an increased pro-inflammatory profile in innate immune cells,

therefore we tested whether Hif-1α is upregulating a pro-inflammatory program in the

absence of infection using the *il-1β:GFP* transgenic line. Dominant active Hif-1α

significantly increased *il-1β:GFP* expression in the absence of Mm infection at 2dpf,

while dominant negative Hif-1α caused no difference in *il-1β:GFP* expression (Figure

3A and B). These data indicate that *il-1β* expression is part of a pro-inflammatory

response to increased Hif-1α levels that could aid the host response to Mm

challenge.

Inhibition of *il-1β* increases Mm burden and inhibits the Hif-1α nitric oxide response

Il-1β is a major pro-inflammatory cytokine that in many infections is instrumental in coordinating the immune response (Cohen, 2014; Ogryzko *et al*, 2014b). We sought to test whether Il-1β was important in early Mm infection. When Il-1β was blocked using a well-characterised and validated *il-1β* morpholino, the morphants showed significantly increased infection compared to control morphants (Figure 4A and B). We have previously shown that stabilisation of Hif-1α induces pro-inflammatory neutrophil nitric oxide production, via inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) (Elks *et al*, 2013, 2014a). DA Hif-1α was not sufficient to reduce Mm infection levels when *il-1β* expression was blocked (Figure 4A and B) suggesting that the *il-1β* response to Mm infection is critical to control infection. These results were supported by generation of an *il-1β* null mutant (*il-1β^{SH446}/ il-1β^{SH446}*) (Figure S2), in which DA Hif-1α also did not decrease infection, while in wildtype siblings infection was reduced (Figure 4C and D).

NO production is found primarily in neutrophils after Mm infection in zebrafish larvae (Figure S3) (Elks *et al*, 2013, 2014b). We have previously demonstrated that inhibiting production of nitric oxide by Nos2 can block the antimicrobial effect of DA Hif-1α (Elks *et al*, 2013). Blocking Il-1β production also significantly dampened the neutrophil nitric oxide response after Mm infection at 1dpi (Figure 5A and B). As we have previously observed, DA Hif-1α upregulated NO in the absence of infection (PVP) an effect that is dampened by introduction of the bacteria (Mm) through currently unknown mechanisms, (Figure 5C and D) (Elks *et al*, 2013). Here, we find that *il-1β* MO blocked the increased production of nitrotyrosine by DA Hif-1α in the

absence of bacteria (PVP) (Figure 5C and D). These results show that Hif-1α

activation of Nos2 may, at least in part, be acting through *il-1β* activation (Figure 6)

and hint at a much more complex regulation of pro-inflammatory signalling by Hif-1α

than simply acting on Hif responsive elements (HREs) in the promoter of Nos2.

Discussion

Antimicrobial resistance is a rising problem in TB infections worldwide and there is

an urgent need to understand the regulation of host-immunity by TB so that we can

target host-derived factors to help tackle disease. Our data identify an early pro-

inflammatory response, involving macrophage *il-1β* expression, that is important for

the onset of early disease, but ultimately fails to control infection leading to

granuloma formation. Using a well-established zebrafish Mm model of TB, we show

that manipulation of Hif-1α can stimulate this pro-inflammatory network, aiding the

host fight against infection, moving towards early clearance of infection. Specifically,

we identify that Hif-1α driven Il-1β contributes to the NO response, a response we

have previously shown to be host protective (Elks *et al*, 2013, 2014a).

Here, we took advantage of a novel transgenic zebrafish line to understand the

dynamics and cell specificity of *il-1β* production in inflammation and mycobacterial

infection, specifically focussing on the understudied early stages (<1dpi) of the

innate immune response to TB infection. We confirmed that the *il-1β:GFP* expression

of our line was faithful to *il-1β* transcription by following its expression in a well-

characterised tailfin transection model of inflammation and comparison to *in situ*

hybridisation data (Ogryzko *et al*, 2014a; Renshaw & Loynes, 2006). Furthermore,

the expression pattern of our BAC transgenic line closely matches another recently

published BAC promoter driven *il-1β* transgenic (Hasegawa *et al*, 2017). The *il-*

1β:GFP line also displayed some GFP signal in muscle and epithelial cells in the tail.

Similar GFP expression can be seen when driven by NF-kB response elements

(Kanther *et al*, 2011) but not by WISH, suggesting this might be off-target expression

resulting from the promoter region missing some negative regulatory elements,

however, it could also be specific expression that is at too low a level to be

detectable by *in situ* hybridisation. Although previous studies have shown *il-1β:GFP*

to be upregulated in leukocytes at a tailfin transection (Hasegawa *et al*, 2017), we

combined the *il-1β:GFP* line with leukocyte specific transgenics to show that

neutrophils are the first to respond at the wound, with macrophages both migrating to

and upregulating *il-1β:GFP* at later timepoints.

The Mtb granuloma is widely studied, both in terms of immunohistochemistry of

human granulomas, and in mammalian models (Ulrichs & Kaufmann, 2006; Flynn *et*

al, 2011; Via *et al*, 2008). These studies have demonstrated that the granuloma is

rich in pro-inflammatory cytokine production. This pro-inflammatory environment has

been observed in human TB, with IL-1β found to be in high levels in pleural fluid from

TB patients with granulomas present (Orphanidou *et al*, 1996). Here we observe that

the pro-inflammatory response is present at pre-granuloma stages. Lack of a pro-

inflammatory response has been linked to poor treatment outcomes indicating that

this host response is important even in the presence of antimycobacterial agents

(Waitt *et al*, 2015). The upregulation of proinflammatory cytokines in mycobacterial

infection has also been shown in the zebrafish/Mm larval model of TB granulomas,

but previous studies have mainly relied on immunohistochemistry and/or

transcriptomics data from either wholebody larvae or FACs sorted immune cell

populations (Benard *et al*, 2016; Marjoram *et al*, 2015). Using live cell imaging we

found that *il-1β* transcription was upregulated at the granuloma formation stage,

however we also demonstrated that it is upregulated before the granuloma stage

within 6-8 hours hpi. Upon infection *il-1β:GFP* expression was predominantly

upregulated in infected macrophages indicating that within the first 24 hours of

infection there is a macrophage pro-inflammatory response. Murine and human cell

studies have indicated that macrophages are able to produce IL-1β a few hours after

mycobacterial challenge indicating that an early response is also present in

mammalian systems, at least on a cellular level (Di Paolo *et al*, 2015; Robinson &

Nau, 2008). Our observations are in line with our previous observation of Hif-1α

signalling early after infection (detected using a *phd3:GFP* transgenic line), which

was also observed in infected macrophages at 1dpi (Elks *et al*, 2013), indicating that

il-1β, alongside Hif-1α signalling, is part of an immediate pro-inflammatory

macrophage response. As with Hif-1α, our data indicate that Mm triggered *il-1β* is

not sufficient to control infection with subsequent widespread granuloma formation at

later stages, however if primed with high *il-1β* and NO via Hif-1α the immune

response is boosted leading to lower infection, towards early infection clearance.

We have previously demonstrated that stabilisation of Hif-1α can aid the zebrafish

host to control Mm infection, at least in part by priming neutrophils with increased

nitrotyrosine generated by the Nos2 enzyme (Elks *et al*, 2013). If the Nos2 enzyme is

blocked either pharmacologically or genetically the protective effect of Hif-1α

stabilisation is lost (Elks *et al*, 2013). Here, we show that stabilisation of Hif-1α

upregulates pro-inflammatory macrophage *il-1β* expression in the absence of an

infection challenge. If Il-1β activity is repressed then Hif-1α induced reduction in

bacterial burden is abrogated, alongside the Hif-1α dependent increase in NO

production. These data show regulation of both Nos2 and Il-1β by Hif-1α, and that

Hif-1α driven NO production is partially dependent on Il-1β induction. Both human

NOS-2 and IL-1β have HREs (HIF responsive elements) in their promoters and

direct regulation by HIF-α signalling has been previously demonstrated *in vitro*

(Zhang *et al*, 2006; Charbonneau *et al*, 2007). The link between HIF-1α and IL-1β

has been previously demonstrated in murine macrophages via inflammatory

activation by succinate, in the absence of infection (Tannahill *et al*, 2013). In a

murine model of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* it was found that HIF-1α is critical for

IFN-γ–dependent control of M. tuberculosis infection, but it has not previously been

demonstrated that HIF-1α is important for innate defense of macrophages against M.

tuberculosis (Braverman *et al*, 2016). Our data do not rule out direct regulation of

Nos2 by Hif-1α, as blocking Il-1β is likely to have wider spread immune effects,

however they do suggest that Nos2 is partially upregulated by Il-1β in the stabilised

Hif-1α context. These observations, alongside our finding that blocking Il-1β,

primarily observed in macrophages, can block Hif-1α induced neutrophil nitrotyrosine

production, indicate a close interplay between macrophages and neutrophils during

early mycobacterial infection that is not yet fully understood.

IL-1β is an important pro-inflammatory cytokine, but its processing by caspases also

plays a crucial role in immune cell pyroptosis mediated by the inflammasome (Malik

& Kanneganti, 2017). Recent findings in the Mm/zebrafish model indicate that

neutrophils and macrophages can efficiently phagocytose bacteria and undergo

rounds of cell death and re-uptake during the initial days of infection (Hosseini *et al*,

2016). Although here we show a role for early pro-inflammatory *il-1β* transcription

during Mm infection, the role of Il-1β processing and inflammasome induced

pyroptosis/cell death in these early Mm immune processes remain undetermined.

In conclusion, our data demonstrate an early pro-inflammatory response of Mm

infected macrophages. By stabilising Hif-1α, macrophage Il-1β can be primed in the

absence of infection and is protective upon Mm infection via neutrophil nitric oxide

production. Therapeutic strategies targeting these signalling mechanisms could

decrease the level of initial mycobacteria in patients and act to block the

development of active TB by reactivation of macrophage pro-inflammatory stimuli.

Furthermore, our findings may have important implications in other human infectious

diseases in which the pathogen is able to circumvent the proinflammatory immune

response to allow its survival and proliferation. Therapies that target host-derived

signalling pathways such as these would be beneficial against multidrug resistant

strains and could act to shorten the currently long antibiotic therapies required to

clear TB from patients.

Materials and Methods

Zebrafish and bacterial strains

Zebrafish were raised and maintained on a 14:10-hour light/dark cycle at 28 degrees

C, according to standard protocols (Nusslein-Volhard C, 2002), in UK Home Office

approved facilities at The Bateson Centre aquaria at the University of Sheffield.

Strains used were Nacre (wildtype), *Tg(mpeg1:mCherry-F)ump2Tg, TgBAC(il-*

1β:eGFP)sh445   Tg(mpeg1:mCherryCAAX)sh378 and *Tg(lyz:Ds-RED2)nz50*

(Marjoram *et al*, 2015; Bojarczuk *et al*, 2016; Nguyen-Chi *et al*, 2015; Hall *et al*,

2007).

Mm infection experiments were performed using M. marinum M (ATCC #BAA-535),

containing a psMT3-mCherry or psMT3 mCrimson vector (van der Sar *et al*, 2009).

Injection inoculum was prepared from an overnight liquid culture in the log-phase of

growth resuspended in 2% polyvinylpyrrolidone40 (PVP40) solution (CalBiochem) as

previously described (Cui *et al*, 2011). 100-150 colony forming units (CFU) were

injected into the caudal vein at 28-30hpf as previously described (Benard *et al*,

2012).

Generation of *TgBAC(il-1α:GFP)sh445* transgenic and *il-1β^{SH446}/ il-1β^{SH446}*

mutant zebrafish

An eGFP SV40 polyadenylation cassette inserted at the *il-1β* ATG start site of

zebrafish BAC CH-211-147h23 using established protocols (Renshaw *et al*, 2006).

Inverted Tol2 elements were inserted into the chloramphenicol coding sequence and

the resulting modified BAC was used to generate *TgBAC(il-1β:eGFP)sh445*.

il-1-/- (*il-1β^{SH446}/il-1β^{SH446}*) mutant embryos were generated by CRISPR-Cas9

mediated mutagenesis targeted around an Mwo1 restriction site in the third exon of

il-1β using the method described by Hruscha et al (2013) and the template sequence

5'-

AAAGCACCGACTCGGTGCCACTTTTTCAAGTTGATAACGGACTAGCCTTATTTTA

ACTTGCTATTTCTAGCTCTAAAAC**TGAGCATGTCCAGCACCTC**GGCTATAGTGA

GTCGTATTACGC-3' (*il-1β* target sequence in bold). PCR with il-1gF 5'-

TAAGGAAAAACTCACTTC-3' and il-1gR 5'ATACGTGGACATGCTGAA3' and

subsequent Mwo1 digestion were used for genotyping.

Morpholino knockdown of *il-1β*

The *il-1bβ* morpholino (Genetools) was used as previously reported (López-Muñoz *et*

al, 2011). A standard control morpholino (Genetools) was used as a negative

control.

Confocal microscopy of transgenic larvae

1dpi and 4dpi transgenic zebrafish larvae infected with fluorescent Mm strains were

mounted in 0.8-1% low melting point agarose (Sigma-Aldrich) and imaged on a Leica

TCS-SPE confocal on an inverted Leica DMi8 base and imaged using 20x or 40x

objective lenses.

For quantification purposes acquisition settings and area of imaging (in the caudal

vein region) were kept the same across groups. Corrected total cell fluorescence

was calculated for each immune-stained cell using Image J as previously described

(Elks *et al*, 2013, 2014a).

Tailfin transection

360 Inflammation was induced in zebrafish embryos by tail transection at 2 or 3dpf as

361 described previously (Renshaw & Loynes, 2006). Embryos were anesthetised by

362 immersion in 0.168 mg/mL Tricaine (Sigma-Aldrich), and tail transection was

363 performed using a microscalpel (World Precision Instruments).

qPCR of *il-1β*

SYBR green qPCR was performed on 1dpi Mm infected (or PVP control) embryos as

previously described (Van Der Vaart *et al*, 2014). The following primers were used:

il-1β, accession number NM_212844, forward primer:

GAACAGAATGAAGCACATCAAACC, reverse primer:

ACGGCACTGAATCCACCAC, *ppial* control, accession number AY391451, forward

primer: ACACTGAAACACGGAGGCAAG, reverse primer:

CATCCACAACCTTCCCGAACAC.

Bacterial pixel count

Mm mCherry infected zebrafish larvae were imaged at 4dpi on an inverted Leica

DMi8 with a 2.5x objective lens. Brightfield and fluorescent images were captured

using a Hammamatsu OrcaV4 camera. Bacterial burden was assessed using

dedicated pixel counting software as previously described (Stoop *et al*, 2011).

RNA injections

Embryos were injected with dominant *hif-1αb* variant RNA at the one cell stage as

previously described (Elks *et al*, 2011). *hif-1α* variants used were dominant active

(DA) and dominant negative (DN) *hif-1α* (ZFIN: *hif1ab*). Phenol red (PR) (Sigma

Aldrich) was used as a vehicle control.

Anti-nitrotyrosine antibody staining

Larvae were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS overnight at 4°C and nitrotyrosine

levels were immune-labelled using a rabbit polyclonal anti-nitrotyrosine antibody

(Merck Millipore 06-284) and were detected using an Alexa Fluor conjugated

secondary antibody (Invitrogen Life Technologies) as previously described (Elks *et*

al, 2013, 2014a).

Statistical analysis

All data were analysed (Prism 7.0, GraphPad Software) using unpaired, two-tailed t-

tests for comparisons between two groups and one-way ANOVA (with Bonferonni

post-test adjustment) for other data. P values shown are: $*P < .05$, $**P < .01$, and

$***P < .001$.

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vector.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: PME, SAR, NVO. Performed the experiments: PME, NVO, AL. Analysed the data: PME, NVO, HW, AHM, SAR. Wrote the paper: PME, NVO, SAR.

Conflict of Interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* **is upregulated by Mm in infected macrophages at early and later stage infection**

A) Graph showing relative wholebody *il-1β* mRNA expression by SYBRgreen qPCR in Mm infected 1dpi larvae (Mm) and mock injected controls (PVP). Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=3 independent experiments.

(B) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of 1dpi larvae, prior to granuloma formation. Unchallenged *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* has no detectable expression in immune cells and low detectable levels in the yolk (dotted line) and some muscle cells. *il-1β* expression was detected by GFP levels, in green, using the *TgBAC(il-1:eGFP)sh445* transgenic line. Mm mCherry is shown in the red channel. Increased levels of *il-1β:GFP* expression were detectable in cells associated with infection. Infected macrophages with *il-1β-GFP* levels have an activated, branched phenotype (white arrowheads).

(C) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of 4dpi larvae. *il-1β* expression was detected by GFP levels, in green, using the *TgBAC(il-1:eGFP)sh445* transgenic line. Mm mCherry is shown in the red channel. Increased levels of *il-1β:GFP* expression were detectable in immune cells that are in the blood vessels (Ci and blown up in Ciii, blood vessel indicated by solid white lines) and in early tissue granulomas (Cii and blown up in Civ).

Figure 2. *il-1β:GFP* is activated 6-8 hours after challenge in macrophages.

(A) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of a timelapse between 6 to 8 hours post Mm infection. Mm mCherry is shown in the red channel and *il-1β:GFP* in the green channel with the microscope settings set to detect low GFP levels. Arrowheads indicate the emergence of *il-1β:GFP* expression in an infected cell.

(B) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* crossed to *Tg(mpeg1:mCherryCAAX)sh378* line labelling macrophages. The tailfin was transected at 3dpf and fluorescence imaging was performed at the wound at 1 hour post wound (1hpw) and 6hpw. Red macrophages are not positive for *il-1β:GFP* expression at 1hpw and the first detectable *il-1β:GFP* expression is found in the macrophages at 6hpw.

(C) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of 1dpi caudal vein region of infection. *il-1β* expression was detected by GFP levels, in green, using the *TgBAC(il-1β:eGFP)sh445* transgenic line. Macrophages are shown in red using a *Tg(mpeg1:mCherryCAAX)sh378* line. Mm Crimson is shown in the blue channel (right panels) with a PVP control (left panels). Without infection there is little overlap of *il-1β:GFP* and *mpeg:mCherry*, while in infected larvae macrophages have higher levels of *il-1β:GFP*. Arrowheads indicate infected macrophages with high levels of *il-1β:GFP.* Dotted lines indicate the yolk extension of the larvae where there is non-specific fluorescence.

Figure 3. *il-1β:GFP* is upregulated in the absence of infection by DA Hif-1α

(A) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of 1dpi caudal vein region of infection. *il-1β:GFP* expression was detected by GFP levels, in green, using the *TgBAC(il-1:eGFP)sh445* transgenic line. Larvae were injected at the 1 cell stage with dominant negative (DN) or dominant active (DA) Hif-1α or phenol red (PR) control. Non-infected larvae are in the left panels (PVP) and Mm Crimson infected larvae are in the right panels (Mm). Dotted lines indicate the yolk extension of the larvae where there is non-specific fluorescence.

(B) Corrected fluorescence intensity levels of *il-1β:GFP* confocal z-stacks in uninfected larvae (PVP, empty bars) and infected larvae (Mm, filled bars) at 1dpi. Dominant active Hif-1α (DA1) had significantly increased *il-1β:GFP* levels in the absence of Mm bacterial challenge compared to phenol red (PR) and dominant negative Hif-1α (DN1) injected controls. Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=24-48 cells from 4-8 embryos representative of 3 independent experiments.

Figure 4. *il-1β* knockdown abrogates the protective effect of DA Hif-1α on bacterial burden

(A) Stereo-fluorescence micrographs of Mm mCherry infected 4dpi larvae after injection with DA Hif-1α (DA1) and the *il-1β* morpholino (Il-1 MO), using the standard control morpholino and phenol red (Control) as a negative control.

(B) Bacterial burden of larvae shown in (A). Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=46-50 as accumulated from 3 independent experiments.

(C) Stereo-fluorescence micrographs of Mm mCherry infected 4dpi larvae of *il-1β* knockout (il-1-/-) and sibling wildtype controls (WT) after injection of DA Hif-1α (DA1) or phenol red (PR) as a negative control.

(D) Bacterial burden of larvae shown in (C). Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=16-20

as accumulated from 3 independent experiments.

Figure 5. *il-1β* knockdown abrogates DA Hif-1α dependent nitrotyrosine

production

(A) Example fluorescence confocal z-stacks of the caudal vein region of embryos

stained with Alexa-633 labelled anti-nitrotyrosine antibody (red), imaged at 1dpi in

the presence or absence of Mm infection. One-cell stage embryos were injected with

phenol red (PR). One-cell stage embryos we co-injected with *il-1β* morpholino or (il-1

MO) or standard control morpholino (Cont MO). At 1dpi larvae were either infected

with Mm mCherry (Mm), or PVP as a non-infected control (Mm channel not shown in

these panels).

(B) Example fluorescence confocal z-stacks of the caudal vein region of embryos

stained with Alexa-633 labelled anti-nitrotyrosine antibody (red), imaged at 1dpi in

the presence or absence of Mm infection. One-cell stage embryos were injected with

dominant active Hif-1α (DA). One-cell stage embryos we co-injected with *il-1β*

morpholino or (il-1 MO) or standard control morpholino (Cont MO). At 1dpi larvae

were either infected with Mm mCherry (Mm), or PVP as a non-infected control (Mm

channel not shown in these panels).

(C) Corrected fluorescence intensity levels of anti-nitrotyrosine antibody confocal z-

stacks of phenol red (PR) control injected embryos in the presence or absence of

Mm infection at 1dpi. Control morpholino is shown in the clear bars and *il-1β*

morpholino (il-1 MO) in the filled bars. Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=54-59 cells

from 10-12 embryos accumulated from 3 independent experiments.

(D) Corrected fluorescence intensity levels of anti-nitrotyrosine antibody confocal z-

stacks of dominant active Hif-1α (DA1) injected embryos in the presence or absence

of Mm infection at 1dpi. Control morpholino is shown in the clear bars and il-1

morpholino (il-1 MO) in the filled bars. Data shown are mean ± SEM, n=54-59 cells

from 10-12 embryos accumulated from 3 independent experiments.

Figure 6. Hif-1α stabilisation leads to upregulation of *il-1β* and increased

neutrophil nitric oxide production that is protective against infection.

During normal (control) Mm infection Hif-1α, Il-1β and NO transcript levels rise after

infection, but are not sufficient to control infection (Elks *et al*, 2013). When Hif-1α is

stabilised, Il-1β and subsequent neutrophil NO upregulation occurs in the absence of

infection, priming the immune response to better deal with infection leading to lower

burden.

Figure S1. *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* recapitulates *il-1β* wholemount *in situ*

hybridisation pattern following sterile tailfin transection.

(A) Wholemount *in situ* hybridisation of *il-1β* in tailfin injured 2dpf embryos.

(B) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* expression after

tailfin injury. Upper and lower panels show the same individual embryo 0 and 12hpi.

(C) Fluorescent confocal micrographs of *TgBAC(il-1β:GFP)sh445* crossed to

Tg(lyz:Ds- RED2)nz50 labelling neutrophils at 1 hour post wound (1hpw) and 6hpw.

Figure S2. CRISPR-Cas9 *il-1β SH446* mutant.

(A) Screenshot of Ensembl zebrafish *il-1β* coding sequence with CRISPR-Cas9

target indicated in the fourth exon.

(B) DNA alignment of WT *il-1β* sequence and *il-1βSH446* showing the 44 base pair

deletion caused by CRISPR-Cas9.

(C) Amino acid alignment of WT *il-1β* sequence and *il-1βSH446* with arrowhead

showing the premature stop and removal of the putative Il-1β cleavage site.

(D) Sequencing trace showing position of CRISPR-Cas9 induced deletion.

Figure S3. Anti-nitrotyrosine signal is predominantly found in neutrophils after

Mm infection.

(A) Example fluorescence confocal z-stacks of the caudal vein region of

Tg(mpx:GFP)i114 embryos (green neutrophils) stained with Alexa-633 labelled anti-

nitrotyrosine antibody (cyan), imaged at 1dpi in the presence of Mm mCherry

infection (red).

Supplemental Movie 1. *Il-1β:GFP* expression in activated immune cells after

Mm infection.

(A) Fluorescent confocal videotimelapse of *il-1β:GFP* in immune cells containing Mm

infection (*il-1β:GFP* in green and Mm mCrimson in red).

Figure 1

A 1dpi

il1-b

Relative fold change expression

PVP   Mm

*

B 1dpi

il-1 GFP   unchallenged

il-1 GFP

Mm

Merge

100 μm

C 4dpi

Ci 4 dpi

il-1 GFP

Mm

Merge   100 μm

Cii 4 dpi

il-1 GFP

Mm

Merge   100 μm

Ciii

Civ

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

1dpi

PR il-1 GFP PVP	PR Mm
DN1 PVP	DN1 Mm
DA1 PVP	DA1 Mm

100 μm

B

Corrected fluoresence intensity

PVP
Mm

**

*** *** ns

PR PR   DN1 DN1   DA1 DA1
Hif-1α

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6